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VOLUME XXVIII NOVEMBER, 1929 NUMBER 8

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THE ALUMINUM ORE INDUSTRY OF ARKANSAS

W. A. BROWNE
State Teachers College, Nacogdoches, Texas

INTRODUCTION

Thruout the history of our development special interest has been attracted to those industries which have undergone great and rapid growth. Railroads, gold, silver, petroleum, and numerous others have each experienced their respective periods of attractiveness. The aluminum industry is but typical of various American enterprises which have undergone almost phenomenal development; and since it is at present in the limelight stage, it is but natural that special interest be focused in that direction. From a feeble beginning in Georgia, slightly preceding the present century the output of the aluminum ore, bauxite, for various years has exceeded the half-million ton mark. During this period mining activities have spread from Georgia into Alabama, Tennessee, and finally into Arkansas. It is with the industry in the last mentioned state that this discussion deals, in recent years the source of more than 90 per cent of the United States production.

LOCATION AND EXTENT

The Arkansas bauxite deposits are located in Saline and Pulaski counties, but the chief mining activities are carried on at Bauxite, some five miles east of Benton, or about half way between Hot Springs and Little Rock. The highway between these two more important towns passes slightly to the north of the mining fields, however a graveled road joins Bauxite with Benton and also with the main highway just noted. The Chicago, Rock Island, and Pacific and the Missouri Pacific railways and a local railway, the Bauxite and Northern, provide transportation conveniences for shipping the ores.

The mineral-bearing district reaches thru the two above mentioned counties in a N.E.-S.W. direction, altho the best ores are

found in central Saline County. The bauxite beds vary in thickness from only a few inches to a maximum of forty feet, with an average of between ten and fifteen feet. While erosion has left the ores out-cropping at various points, in a few instances the material has been found at depths of 170 feet or more below the surface.

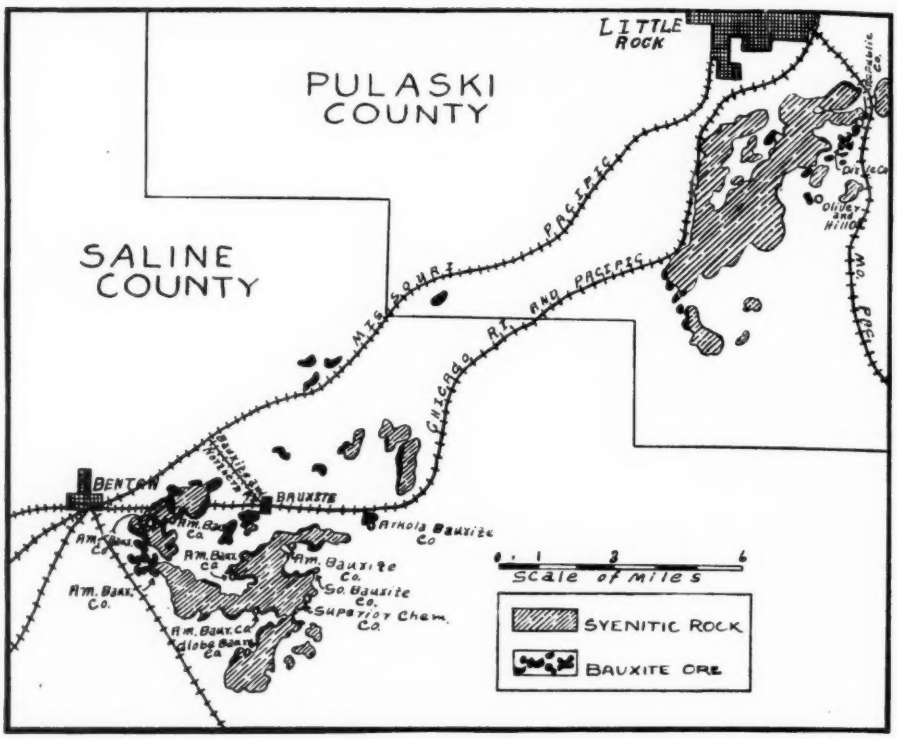

FIG. 1. General outline of the Arkansas Bauxite fields, showing association of syenitic rock and bauxite ores. (From Ark. Geol. Surv.)

FORMATION AND OCCURRENCE

The bauxite of this area is directly associated with blue and gray nephelite syenite to which it owes its origin. Following igneous intrusive action which interstratified these syenite masses with pre-Tertiary sediments a period of extensive erosion left the region in a low hilly or gently undulating country. Mead* attributes the origin of the bauxite to this prolonged weathering of

* Mead, W. J., Occurrence and Origin of the Bauxite Deposits of Arkansas. *Economic Geology*, vol. 10 (1915), pp. 28-54.

the syenite and the action of the downward percolating waters of meteoric origin. By this action removal of various elements altered the syenite to hydrous aluminum, or bauxite of commercial value. During the process some aluminum was also dissolved, only to be redeposited, resulting in secondary bauxite formations which do not show the granitic texture.

Another cycle of submergence, deposition of sediments, followed by uplift and subsequent erosion has left the present hilly surface which is similar to the pre-Tertiary surface, save that hills and valleys trend in a different direction from those intersecting the ore beds. Thus, character of formation and erosive work is responsible for the irregular outline of the minerals concerning depth and exposure.

Mining

Mining in the district has had an interesting history. The mineral has been used for road building material and also has been smelted for the iron content. Not until 1891 were the deposits found to be high grade bauxite, and then several years elapsed before mining operations began. Pick and shovel for removing the ores and wagons for hauling were first employed, and even methods in vogue today are in the main simple.

The larger portion of the mining has been done by open-pit methods, involving stripping of overburden, altho in recent years an increasing amount has been mined underground, locally called the tunnel method. It has been found that removal of the overburden is not justifiable beyond depths of thirty to forty feet. At points where the mineral lies at greater depths underground methods are the rule. Since most of the outcrops and shallow beds have been mined out, stripping work faces further decline. Altho steam shovels are used the greatness of the task may be more nearly realized when we learn that recently one such project was completed at a cost of $1,000,000.

After the overburden is removed work is begun along one side of the bauxite bed. The material is loosened by blasting and picking, and again the steam shovel is employed in loading the ores save where lack of uniformity and quality of the mineral makes hand method necessary. On an average perhaps 40 per cent of the material removed must be discarded as waste. Where excessive amounts of these impurities occur, steam shovel operation is

FIG. 2. General view of the American Bauxite Company plant, Bauxite, Arkansas. Courtesy American Bauxite Company.

impractical, since all sorting is done preceding or at the time of loading. Hand methods are employed altogether in tunnel work. In both tunnel and open-pit methods the narrow gauge railway has replaced the wagon for transferring the ores. Upon removal by either method the ores are dumped directly into two-ton cars (made especially for this work but resembling cars used in coal mines), which are made into trains and drawn by small locomotive-type engines to the crushing mill.

Milling and Disposal of Ores

Upon reaching the mill the cars are drawn up an incline, clamped fast to a section of the track which is automatically tripped, dumping the ores into the crusher. Crushing, done primarily for drying purposes, leaves the material at a maximum diameter of three inches, but by far the greater part relatively fine. From the crusher the ores pass directly to the drying apparatus, which consists of cylindrical rotary kilns seven feet in diameter and sixty feet long. Here the mineral is thoroly dried to avoid freight charges on the water content which runs 14 to 18 per cent, depending on precipitation conditions.

Methods of fueling the kilns have undergone various changes. First, wood, followed in succession by coal, gas, and oil have been used. At Bauxite lump coal was first used, followed by gas, when natural gas became available. Later pulverized coal was considered more economical and this was in turn replaced by oil. At a still later date gas again was installed and has since remained in use. The mill is equipped with both gas and oil fixtures, and a shift from one process to the other can be made in about two hours. The price at which these last two fuels can be obtained is the factor that determines which shall be used.

Very little storing is practiced. From the drying kilns the ore is moved to freight cars by a belt conveyor, from which it drops on a revolving wheel with paddle-like attachments that distribute the material in the cars without further handling. Most of the ores are sent to St. Louis where they are refined to bauxite ore concentrates, or alumina. Further reduction is accomplished in the electrolitic furnace, especially at hydroelectric plants in Tennessee and at Niagara. The Arkansas minerals average about 58 per cent alumina, and alumina itself contains 52.9 per cent metallic aluminum. About five tons of bauxite are required to pro-

duce a ton of aluminum, or one ton of bauxite as mined produces 400 pounds of aluminum.

LABOR CONDITIONS

Labor conditions in the Arkansas bauxite industry have peculiarities of special interest. Its location in the interior of the continent has essentially barred immigrant laborers outside of North

FIG. 3. Loading bauxite in the Arkansas mines. Courtesy American Bauxite Company.

America. Being in a somewhat isolated section average American transitory laborers have not drifted into the industry. The labor force is drawn from three main sources—Negroes, Mexicans, and local whites. Formerly Negroes were not employed, but scarcity of laborers during the war period induced the mine operators, with the approval of the white labor, to accept this element. The white element originates from nearby population who prefer staying "near the old home" to risking their fortunes farther away. Bauxite, the principal mining town, offers exceptional advantages to

labor. It is virtually owned by one of the mining companies, and rent, supplies, and even recreational opportunities are provided at a minimum cost. Furthermore, the workmen are offered something of a service reward. Aged or disabled men who have performed honorable service are given light tasks, or, if entirely unable to work, are kept on the regular payroll without any assigned duties. These policies have resulted in maintaining a well-contented, reliable force.

FIG. 4. The working face of a bauxite mine near Bauxite, Arkansas. Courtesy American Bauxite Company.

OUTPUT OF THE DISTRICT

The bauxite industry of Arkansas has experienced a rapid growth. Altho the output has varied from time to time, especially during the aftermath of the late war, the upward trend has always given evidence of a prosperous industry. (See graf of production.)

Production is based upon market demands rather than upon mining and milling capacities. Since only slight provision is made for storage the ore facilities have been enlarged to handle more material than is regularly demanded. This results in idle days when orders fall below the average, but the management has deemed this preferable to that of providing storage space and rehandling facilities for large quantities of crushed ores. Keen competition demands the most economical procedure.

SITUATION OF THE ARKANSAS FIELD

The graf shows two significant facts in our bauxite industry. The importance of the Arkansas district in United States production is at once noted, and again the effect of foreign competition on the development of bauxite deposits in states near the Atlantic is equally pronounced. It is at once seen that most of the home product is mined in Arkansas, while activities in the older producing states have gradually decreased. French, South American, and other foreign bauxite in large quantities and of high quality has greatly influenced the American market and consequently the aluminum industry in America. Proximity to sea traffic and a cheap labor market enable France and other foreign countries to deliver these ores at our Atlantic ports, duty paid, from $5 to $8 a ton. With cost of production in Arkansas considerably higher than in Europe and with high freight rates prevailing to our manufacturing centers, it might appear that the Arkansas industry would be seriously handicapped. Certain factors, however, are favorable to the development of the home supply, and to some extent offset these disadvantages. For example all ores, whether domestic or foreign, must go directly to the bauxite consuming plants many of which are located well inland. Furthermore, final reduction into aluminum or its fabricated products is accomplished at cheap power sources, often situated at interior points.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

From a meager beginning in Georgia slightly preceding the present century aluminum ore production has rapidly developed into one of our great industries. During this period mining activities have shifted westward into Arkansas, in recent years the principal source of the domestic output. Here the irregular ore beds outcrop in places, but lie at considerable depth in other places. These conditions result in two methods of mining: open-pit for the shallow ores, by the steam shovel method; tunneling for the deep ores, by the pick and shovel method. After crushing and drying the ore is sent to various bauxite consuming plants in the United States and Canada. The interior location of the mining field has essentially barred non-American laborers and at the same time served as a barrier against foreign competition in the aluminum industry.

The present trend leads us to conclude that, unless hampered by tariff rearrangement, importation of foreign ores will continue with serious effect on mining operations in our southeastern states;

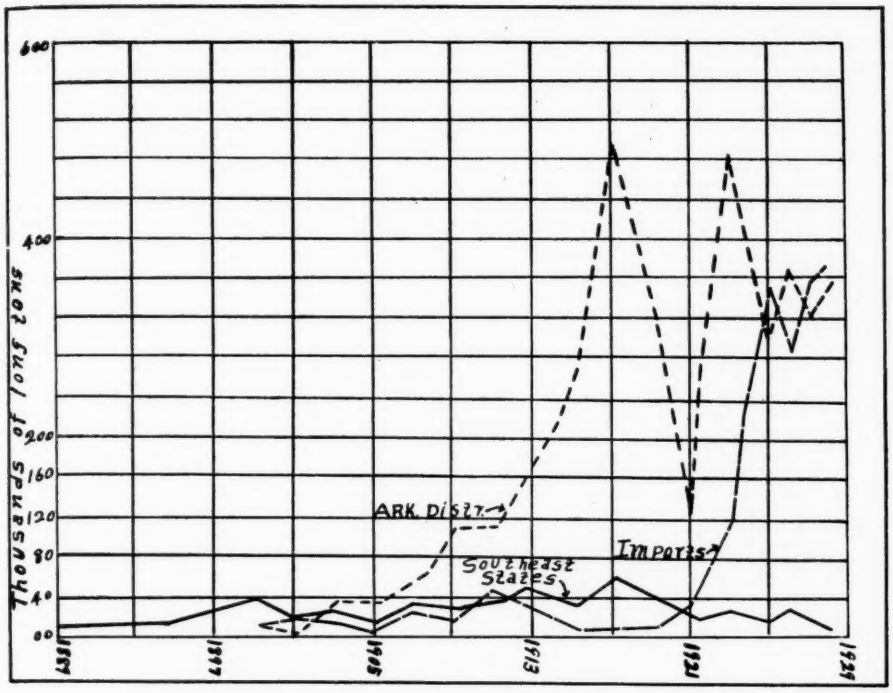

FIG. 5. Graf showing the sources of bauxite used in the United States.

but that the Arkansas field, with satisfactory labor conditions and protected from serious competition by interior location of bauxite consuming plants, has a bright outlook.

TWO NEW COURSES OF STUDY IN GEOGRAPHY

DOUGLAS C. RIDGLEY

Clark University

Progress in the preparation of courses of study in geography is well illustrated by the official publication of extensive courses in New York State under dates of 1927 and 1928, and of New York City under date of 1928. One of these courses has been prepared and published by the State Department of Education, Albany, New York, and the other by the Board of Education of New York City. These two courses provide specific and extensive outlines of subject matter and method for one-tenth of the school population of the United States.

The state course becomes the official course for the state as a whole, altho New York City, Buffalo, and other large cities of the state have their own city courses of study. The state course is put into immediate use by the rural schools, village schools, and numerous city schools. The New York City course finds immediate use in all the schools of the City.

SOME COMPARISONS OF THE COURSES

These courses of study were prepared by special committees. Both committees were under the immediate direction of the highest educational authorities of the State and of the City. The chairman of the state committee was Mr. A. W. Abrams, Director, Visual Instruction Division, New York State Education Department. The chairmen of the committee for New York City were Mr. Alfred S. Roberts, General Chairman, Social Sciences, and Mr. William Jansen, Chairman Special Committee on Geography. The members of the committees included the leading geography teachers of state and city.

Both courses give five full years of work in geography. The State Course assigns geography to grades three to seven, inclusive; and the city course to grades four to eight, inclusive. Both courses treat geography as a separate subject without any attempt to fuse it with other studies. Both courses give comprehensive presentation of aims, subject matter, and method. Both are sufficiently comprehensive to provide the beginning teacher with specific assistance

for accomplishing good work without loss of time or uncertainty concerning the movement of the work year by year.

Both courses provide the teacher with suggestions concerning maps, supplementary readers, other references, and methods appropriate to geography teaching. No one method is featured in either course, but ample encouragement is given in both courses for variety of presentation suitable to the pupil and the topic.

The state course is printed in three separate pamphlets: one of 52 pages for third and fourth grades; one of 98 pages for fifth and sixth grades; and one for seventh grade or junior high school. The first two pamphlets are already published and in use; the final pamphlet is in preparation. The city course is published in a single pamphlet of 115 pages.

The state course is supplemented by additional pamphlets giving in full detail the resources available thru the Visual Instruction Division of the State Education Department. The city course refers specifically to the extensive resources for visual instruction within the city and thru the State Department.

Both courses are published by the educational authorities and furnished free to all teachers of geography within their respective jurisdictions. Each course is in active use by more than 20,000 teachers. Since the courses are published at public expense for official use, persons outside the state must depend on the willingness and ability of the school authorities to supply copies for persons living outside New York State or City.[1]

The Point of View of These Courses

The following quotations from the State Course show the nature of the syllabus and suggest the value to the teacher of the extensive outlines and directions.

> This new course offers five years of geographic study in the elementary school.
>
> This course is progressive rather than spiral or cyclic. The third grade beginnnig with home geography helps children to organize the geographic information they have already gained. The fourth grade leads gradually thru the study of different type regions to preparation for the more systematic study of regions and political subdivisions of continents in grades 5 and 6. Grade 7, adapted either to the eight-year

[1] Requests for copies of these excellent courses of study should be made to: Dr. Frank P. Graves, Commissioner of Education, Albany, New York, for the state course of study. Send 10 cents (not stamps) for the third and fourth grade course and 10 cents for the fifth and sixth grade course. Send 15 cents (not stamps) to Dr. William J. O'Shea, Superintendent of Schools, New York City for the New York City course.

elementary or to the junior high school, will enable children to organize their knowledge of world geography through study of broad topics and world problems.

No one method dominates the organization of subject matter herein contained; but any method or combination of methods may be utilized in attaining the content goals set up. The introductory statement contains an interesting analysis of aims and methods, and specific methods are freely suggested throughout the content for the several grades.

A supplementary bulletin to be reprinted more frequently than the syllabus will carry bibliographies for teachers, suggested reading for children by grades, lists of apparatus and materials, and lists of slides, classified by grades and topics, for visual instruction.

More material is suggested in each grade than can be taught thoroughly in some schools. In many cases wise choices will be essential. Each teacher in conference with her immediate supervisor will determine what phases of the syllabus she can emphasize more advantageously.

In each grade are stated the chief objectives to be attained. The Introductory Statement gives the broader background against which the grade objectives should be interpreted.

Certain fundamental ideas have gradually taken form and guided the selection of content and organization of this syllabus. These criteria may be tentatively stated as follows:

1. Geography is "the study of man in relation to his natural environment."
2. One of the chief functions of geography is to help children visualize the world in which they live.
3. Children enter the third grade with certain geographic information and during succeeding years they add to this store of knowledge both thru school study and extra-school experience. It is the function of the school to help them organize all this information toward a better understanding of how man adapts himself to nature and nature to his ends.
4. It is more important for children to gain in ability to interpret geographic facts and relationships than it is for them to acquire much information unassimilated.
5. The entire syllabus is arranged upon the principle that pupils should constantly use acquired knowledge in their study of new problems.

With this syllabus geography assumes a more important rôle in the elementary schools of the state than it held under the old syllabus. The most important mission of this series of bulletins is to stimulate critical thinking as to the function of geography instruction in the elementary schools.

The following quotations from the New York City Course set forth aims and suggestions for the course as a whole.

The work outlined in this course of study and syllabus in geography is intended for the average class of normal progress pupils. The syllabus should not be elaborated by the addition of facts which have little educational value.

DEFINITION

The generally accepted definition of geography for the elementary schools is that it is the study of the earth as the home of man. This study involves:

1. A knowledge of the physical facts.
2. A knowledge of human activities.
3. A knowledge of the interrelationships between these activities and the physical facts.

Geography vs. Social Science

At present there is a decided tendency to fuse the separate courses in geography, history, and civics into a single course in social science. There is much that can be said for this tendency. The subjects overlap and each is needed to help interpret the others. However, there is much geography that has little direct relationship to history. The courses in social science, which are available at present, tend toward a rather fragmentary treatment of geography. More experimentation is necessary before an acceptable combined course can be formulated for a large school system.

From the standpoint of geography there is an additional point to be considered. It is true that geography is a social science and as such is closely related to the other social sciences. However, geography is also a natural science. This aspect may be neglected if geography is considered exclusively as a social science. Geography occupies a middle ground between the natural sciences and the social sciences; it is the interpreter of the relations between the human activities and the physical environment. Wherever possible, however, geography should be correlated with the natural and the social sciences.

General Aims

The Practical Aim. Every one should be able to locate certain places and physical features; to interpret simple maps; to understand those geographical facts, human activities, and their interrelation which are met with in conversation and in general reading. He should also know how to obtain additional information if he desires it.

The Moral Aim. This aim is not entirely distinct from the other two aims. It is mentioned separately, however, to bring out the value that geography has in arousing in pupils a love of their own country, an understanding of the mutual dependence and helpfulness of different groups of people which will lead to sympathy and respect for the peoples of other lands, an understanding and appreciation of the great laws, forces, and resources which vitally affect the lives of people and of the efforts which the inhabitants of the earth have made to utilize them for human betterment and to overcome the obstacles and difficulties presented by their environment.

In no subject is there a better opportunity to show the progress of man—physically, commercially, economically, morally. The conservation of resources, the dignity of labor, the exploration of unknown parts of the earth and the depths of the seas, the improvement of commerce by land, water, and air, the circulation of moisture, irrigation, the interdependence of people, the influence of oceans, winds, forests, mountains, and rivers, as well as other topics, should be taught, not as groups of facts to be memorized, but as organized topics which will exert decided influence on ideals and conduct.

The Intellectual Aims. The intellectual aims of geography are many. The following should receive particular attention:

Here follows a helpful presentation of the intellectual aims under the following paragraph headings. Space does not permit quoting this discussion.

Imagination
Memory
Reasoning
Training Pupils to Study

The Recreational Aim. Schools should do more to provide means for spending leisure time profitably. The study of geography should arouse an interest in the outdoor world, in the beauties of nature, and in travel, lectures, books, or other means of enjoying the world about us.

These quotations from both courses show that the educational authorities of New York State and New York City find in modern geography a strong and vigorous subject closely related to the social studies, but with a *distinct contribution* to the educational progress of the child. A close relationship between geography, history, and civics is recognized and provided for, but the viewpoint of modern geography is carried out in courses of study which give clear visual images of the peoples of today and the lands in which they live. This approach to geography presents the unity and the diversity of lands and peoples of the world, and gives the boys and girls of today a basis for understanding the countries and the peoples of the world as they exist today and as we must know them in the international contacts that are growing closer and more numerous year after year and decade after decade.

Modern geography as set forth in these two courses of study gives opportunity to develop among boys and girls a wholesome and sympathetic understanding of the rest of the world which will lead to an appreciation of other peoples as friends and neighbors, more like us than they are different from us.

SCOPE AND CHARACTER OF THE COURSES

Each course of study sets forth in brief summary the general scope of the work, grade by grade, as an introduction to the extensive outlines developed in the succeeding pages of each syllabus.

The following quotations from the State Course set forth the general movement, year by year.

This syllabus aims to be suggestive and stimulating. It is a definitely organized program within which to work. It is prescriptive neither as to content nor method. The spirit of it is more important than the letter. The teacher of a particular grade should be familiar with the entire syllabus in order that she may contribute her part to the scheme as a whole.

Progressive with cycles of approach. The course as a whole is progressive rather than spiral. The same ground is not gone over a second time in the same general way; for example, there is only one systematic study of each of the continents. Nevertheless, there are cycles of approach corresponding to the maturity and geographic experience of pupils.

GENERAL PLAN BY GRADES

Third grade. Home geography. The gathering up and organizing of the pupils' contacts with the earth and its inhabitants through their relation to food, clothing, shelter and means of transportation and their everyday observations of certain natural phenomena.

Fourth grade. Peoples of other lands. A survey of some of the larger features of certain type regions through an elementary study of outstanding human reactions to

significant environments. Study of Australia as a transition to the work of the next two grades.

Fifth and sixth grades. A systematic study of each of the other continents, with due regard both to natural regions and to political divisions. This is to be largely factual geography, with immediate specific outcomes.

Seventh grade. A re-survey of the earth not primarily by continents and countries but by broad topics and problems, such as the extensive fertile plains of the earth, water transportation, distribution of population, conditions controlling leading industries, sources of power for manufacturing and their distribution, providing for review and the fuller organization of knowledge according to significant relations and resulting in a comprehension of principles. By this year of the course pupils should have gained through their various studies certain definite contacts with natural phenomena and with human interests and activities. Geography may therefore at this time advantageously be correlated to a considerable extent with other related studies and embrace very practical social problems of general interest.

In those schools that maintain a junior high school department the final work of the syllabus is to be presented in that department. Not only the approach to the subject but also the general conditions under which the work is done in the seventh grade will be new and stimulating.

Following this presentation of the general scope of each year's work, are headings under which are given helpful discussions of vital topics in the study of geography from the modern viewpoint. Some of the topics treated are:

Human geography
Regional organization
Correlation
Definition of geography
Avoidance of industrial technology
Acquaintance with principles
The teacher's responsibility
Map reading
Map sketching

The body of the course of study consists of an extensive analysis of the topics, year by year, in a manner to stimulate interest on the part of teacher and pupil with suggestions for presenting the material outlined in concrete and an effective manner.

The following quotations from the New York City Course set forth the general movement, year by year.

OUTLINE OF THE COURSE

The formal study of geography is begun in the fourth year. This does not mean that the pupil had had no work of a geographical nature in the first three years. In nature study his attention has been called to certain seasonal changes which are part of his day by day experience. In reading, composition, and memory lessons, and probably in drawing, geographical topics are frequently present.

Grades 4A and 4B. The formal study of geography in 4A is begun with the topic *How We Live.* Thru a study of familiar articles of food and clothing and familiar

workmen, pupils are led to see how much people depend upon one another. The environment of the City of New York is so complex that it is difficult for young children to see our dependence upon the physical environment. For this reason the study begins with interesting peoples in simpler environments, for example, the Eskimo and the Congo native. This type of study is begun in 4A and makes up the major part of the 4B work. A child's immediate environment is not neglected, however. In this grade a pupil should learn something about his neighborhood and also something about the places in the city worth visiting. In connection with the study of his neighborhood, the map is developed. It is gradually expanded to the map of the City of New York in 4A and to the map of the world and of the globe in 4B. In connection with the study of both the City of New York and distant places, children will have to be taught the meaning of certain geographical terms. A list of such terms is given in each grade except in 8A and 8B.

Grades 5A and 5B. The basic subject matter for this year is a study of the United States and some of its possessions. A brief study of North America is taken at the beginning so as to place the United States with respect to the continent as a whole, and also to supply the necessary background for the work in history. The method of treatment of the subject matter is to give an intensive study to two or three type occupations of each group of states. The geographical facts are brought out in connection with the study of these type industries. In grade 5A, the North and South Atlantic States are studied, and in 5B, the rest of our country, together with a few of the more important possessions. In each grade there is provided a review of the locational facts of previous grades.

Grades 6A, 6B, 7A, and 7B. In these grades the study of North America is completed and the other continents are studied. Under each geographical unit there are three main headings:

I. Geographical controls (location, surface, climate, other resources)
II. Some effects of these controls
III. Other information

The first two of these are arranged to stress causal relationships; the third serves as a means of introducing such other facts as it is felt pupils should know. This arrangement of subject matter leaves the teacher free, however, to use any one of the approved methods.

In grade 6A, all the countries of North and South America are studied except our own. South America is treated regionally and this method of treatment is continued in the study of Europe in grade 6B. Asia and Australia are studied in 7A and Africa in the first part of 7B. All countries in these continents are not studied in detail for many of them are relatively unimportant to a pupil in the City of New York. The remainder of 7B is devoted to a study of the earth as a planet and to a review of the factors affecting climate.

Grade 8A. The work of this grade is a review of the United States, but the treatment is different from that of the fifth year. An important aim in this and the following grade is the ability to solve geographical problems. Hence the material is arranged in topical form with suggested problems under each heading. Pupils should be thrown on their own resources and thus acquire a power of independent study.

Grade 8B. This grade considers a review of world geography under the general heading of the trade relations among nations. Trade is considered under three headings: foreign sources of our materials, foreign markets for our materials, and transportation. Five weeks of work are provided for a study of the achievements of man and places of human interest. Inasmuch as these are to be appreciation lessons, sufficient choice is left to the teacher so that he may select topics which he can make most interesting to the children.

Following this summary, the following topics are treated in a helpful way:

Regional Treatment of Geography
Visual Appeal
Suggestions for Observation
Visual Aids
The Class Excursion
The Map and Its Use
Study and the Study Period
The Problem—Project Method
Type Study
Drill
The Review Lesson
The Use of Standardized Tests

Then follows the detailed syllabus, grade by grade, under the following headings:

Special Aims of the Grade
Suggestions to Teachers
Subject Matter, in outline form
Pupil activities, with abundant suggestions

The Value of These Courses to Teachers of Geography

These are two courses in geography among a large number of valuable courses which have been issued by states and cities during recent years. There has been a definite effort by school authorities everywhere to improve the geography courses in the elementary school and junior high school. This tendency has been especially vigorous since the World War. The World War and our participation in it stimulated an interest in knowing about other peoples and their homelands. Geography supplies the appropriate subject matter with which to satisfy this interest with accurate and absorbing information. These two courses, in common with numerous other recent courses, present to the teacher of geography fundamental concepts in the teaching and the learning of geography. Some of the ideas and points of view from these and other courses may be given in summary form as follows:

1. Elementary school geography is tending toward an emphasis on the human aspects of geography in which human activities are to be interpreted in relation to the physical environment.

2. A study of the home community in its simple geographical aspects forms a concrete and effective introduction to sound geography work in later years.

3. A simple presentation of world geography by a study of the everyday lives of people in various typical geographical environments thruout the world gives a clear concept of the world-whole as a matter of genuine pupil interest and as a foundation for later continental studies.

4. The regional study of continents forms the larger portion of the subject matter of a geography course in the elementary grades. The continent of North America is always treated first, but the other continents are taken up in various sequences.

5. The continental studies are followed by a presentation of "World Geography" from a new point of view, not by a second cycle of continental studies. In this final study of geography in seventh and eighth grades or in the junior high school, the tendency is to make a study of the "United States in its World Relations." This is accomplished in some courses of study by making a survey of the United States and its resources and comparing the United States with other leading countries of the world. In some courses the study is made thru a consideration of leading commodities, giving a world-wide treatment of the commodity and comparing the United States with other regions of the world on the basis of each commodity. In other courses a limited number of problems of world-wide interest are set up and treated in detail. Various other methods of approach are found among recent courses.

6. The chief tendency pervading the study of geography in the upper grades is a constant effort on the part of the makers of the courses of study to unify the geographical concepts by means of an interesting and effective presentation whereby pupils will obtain a sound basis for international understanding thru comparative and sympathetic consideration of the nations of the world in relation to each other and to the United States.

7. Teachers will find an interesting task in securing ten or more recent courses of study in geography and making a comparative survey of their contents as to aims, subject matter, method, reference lists, and other items of interest. Such a survey will be of utmost value to the teacher or the committee charged with the making or revising of a course of study in geography for a school system.

THE CONSEQUENCE OF PROVINCIALISMS

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The rôle of provincialism in political history is well known. Likewise the regional environments have given character to regional cultures. Man has adjusted himself to his physical *milieu* and in doing so his culture has taken hue from local color. The differentiations stand as mute evidence of the potency of provincialism thruout the centuries.

MAN ENLARGES HIS ENVIRONMENT

It is frequently remarked that man is conquering his physical environment. Rather does he change it or enlarge his habitat. Never does he escape from earthy environmental influences. The development of travel and communication in the last century has entirely altered the character of environment and multiplied tremendously the numbers of influences to which man is subjected. Thus he has not conquered his environment, but by breaking the bonds by which his province held him and allowing traffic in men, materials and ideas, he has brought upon himself the influences of distant lands. He has increased his environment rather than subjugating it. The influences of this universaling of experience are far reaching and are the content of modern commercial and cultural geography.

GEOGRAPHY LARGELY A STUDY OF PROVINCES

In our geographic studies of the history of mankind we are prone to consider his environments and their responses. The tendency is to build up for sections of the earth geographic provinces founded upon similarities of environment. Thus we talk about the jungles, about mountain valleys, about steppes and about island environments. The result of these provincial environments is a differentiation of the characters and activities of peoples. The jungle man lives amidst luxury of vegetation—almost overwhelming vegetation—and because of the slight labor required to accumulate the necessities of life, as well as the enervating climate, there has evolved in the jungles a distinct culture. How different is the

jungle culture from that of the Eskimo where one labors incessantly to gain the meager subsistence required for existence. Coal and iron create one type of people while wheat lands bring forth another. It is my purpose now to take a less anthropological view of geography as a study and view our modern period in light of the breaking down of privincialisms and to show that transportation and communication have played a huge part in giving us a single world point of view in place of the well-defined group cultures which have dominated thought and progress in the past.

WHAT IS A PROVINCE?

A province, according to Royce, shall mean "any part of a national domain, which is, geographically and socially, sufficiently unified to have a true consciousness of unity, to feel a pride in its own ideals and customs, and to possess a distinction from other parts of the country."[1] He might well have substituted for "a national domain," the words "The world." He was then concerned with California which was merely a portion of a nation. Truly, before the days of railway development the California Valley was a well-defined province. But the element of unity of which Royce speaks implies a degree of isolation. Even confining ourselves to the geographical phase of isolation we may do well to investigate the term. Obviously mountain ranges, broad seas, and deserts are elements of physical isolation. But what forms a barrier against inter-communication or how great a distance constitutes a spatial isolation must be defined in terms of the state of civilization which is in existence at the period we are considering. California is no longer isolated as it once was, for railways have brought it much closer to Washington, D.C., and have assured its continuance in the Union of the United States. Social isolation, the factor in social unity, is but indirectly of geographical implication. This is illustrated by the close relations of Germany with Austria as contrasted with the social distance between Germany and France. The distances and difficulties of a physical nature which separate the two pairs are much the same, but the barrier of language, culture, and point of view in the case of France is a factor in making that country much more isolated from Germany than is Austria. Royce goes on to say that the unity of a true province is so strong that individuals are all molded to a common form until they closely

[1] Race Problems, 1908.

represent the group type. It is this process which makes us able to distinguish the Southern planter from the New England Yankee, or the Alaskan miner from the Florida "cracker." Sea coasts, mountain ranges, and broad rivers are some of the more distinct agents in creating geographical provincialisms. Geographic limitations to the economy of a people are no less significant. A forest people is limited by the extent of the forest and an agricultural group by the limits of fertility or mildness of climate. California is a province. Kashmir, surrounded by high mountains and approachable only along the gorge of the Indus or over high passes, is the most distinct of the Indian provinces. Ceylon is highly differentiated from the mainland. Indeed, all islands are provinces. The narrow English Channel has been responsible for England's provincialism. The Hawaiian Group is a province and each island is a sub-province. Switzerland, not so much because of its isolation as because of its separate economy and procedure of life, is a province in the midst of Europe. Holland has two provinces, the sandy soil regions and the clay lands. This brief list is suggestive but in no way exhaustive of the types of provinces.

Early Importance of Isolation

The primitive patriarchal group that lived in a sheltered mountain valley was the nucleus of a tribe. At every step the growth or decline of this group was helped or hindered by geographic environment. Tribal strength depended to a great extent upon the defensibility of the region and prosperity was largely a matter of natural endowments of the area. Whether it be mountain, valley, island, or clearing in the forest, the story is the same. Long residence in one locality saw people influenced more and more by the conditioning factors discoverable in the aspect of the local landscape. National developments had their beginnings in well-defined areas and their progress was frequently determined by physical limitations. The Grecian city-states were products of the valley bottoms which were their territories. The British Empire had its beginning upon an island and at first was limited by the strand line. The early states of the Iberian Peninsula were based upon the natural divisions of that peninsula. When they consolidated, the northern limit expansion was firmly set by the Pyrenees. The one province which did not join Spain was the Portuguese strip which was isolated from the remainder of Iberia in certain degree.

WHAT IS A NATION?

A nation is not necessarily limited by the physical boundaries of a territory, however. In its beginnings a nation seems to be a grouping of people who have a consciousness of the physical environment which they share in common. Semple and Vallaux both stress the point that a nation is founded upon a bit of territory, that the soil which it owns is the most fundamental condition of its existence. Vallaux goes on to say that of all social forms political government alone is inseparable from the soil, for it is from the soil that it draws its political forces and its reason for being. Government is largely the regulation of economic programs. Tho race, language, and traditions all play a part in nationality, they can be shown by numerous examples not to be essentials. Empires are frequently short-lived because they are man-made divisions of the earth's surface along unnatural lines. Empires come and go, but underneath there is a current in history of the provincialisms founded upon natural aspects of the earth which continually reasserts itself. The gratitude for the benefits enjoyed from nature binds people together in a loyalty to homeland which transcends all superficial patriotisms fostered by imperial governments. The local consciousness is one of the most tenacious of historical motives. Physical environment not only sets the stage for the human drama but it furnishes the plot.

PROVINCES IN GEOGRAPHY

It is this provincialism which causes the geographer to study the earth by natural regions in spite of political boundaries. The Flanders Basin is a unit for historical geography or geography of the moment and one does well to study it as a unit in spite of the fact that the national boundary between Belgium and France cuts it in two. Geographers are constantly tempted to divide the world into natural regions and on that basis and draw up a scheme of ideal countries. One geographer dreaming of an Utopia, suggested: "First determine the position of the ring fences and then ask nationalities to retire into the domain or accept a scheme of naturalization." Even tho we can hardly expect nations to accept such a scheme it must appear obvious that peoples who have a like set of natural conditions upon which to base their economy will have a common history to an extent and certainly a common set of interests. The chief reluctance of geographers to follow a plan of

such obvious virtues is that statistics upon which geographic studies must be based are compiled for the political division rather than the physical division. Thus state geographies in the United States are frequently written by counties. No method could be better designed to prevent the reader from getting a picture of the state as a whole or from understanding the historical tendencies of the various sections. Such a method must be descriptive rather than analytical, must state facts rather than relationships.

Definition of a Region

Immediately we attempt to study natural regions we find ourselves hindered by the difficulty of defining the regions. What shall be the bases of definition? Relief features and other physiographic forms suggest themselves as the easy means of demarcation. But no physiographic form differentiates the Great Plains of the United States from the Interior Plains and Prairies. The line is here drawn on differences in rainfall, the 20-inch-rainfall line being the marker. It is thus always that steppes are separated from more humid regions. The ultimate purpose of geography is the study of how mankind lives and therefore we shall do well to speak of natural regions, not in terms of a single factor of environment but in terms of environment as a whole. Natural regions are therefore economic regions, cultural regions. We have not yet progressed to a point where a sufficiently detailed classification of economies has been made to apply such a method to the world as a whole, but regional geographies to a greater or less degree all use economic environments as the basis for comparative geography. Fleure, a geographer of Wales, has invented a scheme for denoting broad divisions of the world. Basing his classification upon human energy, nutrition, reproduction, and increase of well-being he calls his divisions "Human Regions." They are:

1. Hunger regions
2. Regions of nomadism
3. Regions of lasting difficulty
4. Regions of effort
5. Regions of increased well-being
6. Regions of debilitation

Whatever arbitrary national boundaries may sever, say, a region of nomadism and create separate political histories for two divisions, it is obvious that the divisions must have common ele-

ments in their economic and social histories. The more primitive the people generally the more closely does history adapt itself to the study of mankind along the lines determined by physical boundaries and physical contrasts.

PROVINCES IN HISTORY

Thus we find as a conditioning factor in the history of the early civilizations physical provincialisms which nourished their infant cultures, permitting them to grow untrammeled by the more barbarous hordes which surrounded them. Egypt had in addition to the Nile the protection of huge slightly-inhabited desert wastes. Mesopotamian civilizations were protected from the steppes peoples, at least for a period, by similar wastes and by swampy lowlands. Crete was an island kingdom. Greece consisted of fertile valleys isolated from each other, and protected as a whole by mountains which shut out the barbarians of the north; hence the variety of its art and thought. Early cultures required protection, as the child does the cradle.

The remarkable cultures of western Europe and their diversity of character are the outcome of the physical provinces. The cultures are nearly as numerous as are the provinces. We have the fine distinctions between Grecian and Roman civilization because of the decision with which the countries are marked off from each other. Accompanying these differentiations of ideals and economies we have the growth of conflicting interests and a lack of sympathy. Contrasts between English and French national needs and desires are equally strong. Norway and Sweden have had an interesting political connection. Bound together by the peninsular position they would seem to have common interests and one wonders at the two present political divisions in what would seem so well-defined a province. Indeed, there was a period when they had the closest of governmental connections that two countries could have without one losing its identity. However, Norway is a fiord country with a maritime outlook, while Sweden has broad plains that are continental in aspect.

Provincialisms have not only brought about differences in point of view and economic aims which have led to conflict but they have also had a constructive and progressive influence. In provincial differentiations and trends we have the key to the history of progress. Out of the provincial consciousnesses has grown the multipli-

city of forms in our present world culture. Not only have the physical limitations of provinces aided as a defense during the tender beginnings of civilizations but also they have nurtured the growths of cultures and accounted for their variety. Our wealth of culture today lies not in a single source but in many sources and the variety of origins is as great as the numbers of provincialisms. It has been this spirit of place, this individualism of locality, which has marked the beginnings of most historical motifs, and precocities in civilizations are always signalized by strong individualities arising in well-defined provinces.

Commerce Breaks Down Provincialism

But increased facilities of commerce have constantly militated against sectionalism. Every means which increased facilities of transportation has been an agent in the decline of provincialism. Nor must we forget the influence of publicity in counteracting geographical limitations. Mountain ranges are slight hindrance to telegraphy and the wireless invades the farthest reaches of the seven seas. The newspaper gives its readers the gathered news of the world, and when wisely edited, it explains to each kind and class of man, the predilections and antipathies of the others. With such understanding comes sympathy and friendliness. In proportion to the spread of such publicity the unfounded prejudices of one country against another must decline. Inherent differences will remain, but it is possible for these to be transmuted from sources of aversion to elements of common interest.

PICTURE STUDY IN GEOGRAPHY

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There is probably no study in the curriculum of the elementary school in which richer or more varied illustrative material is found than is available in the field of geography. Not only is some phase of man's environment and work constantly at hand for immediate interpretative uses, but the wealth of books and pictures describing every known region is an ever-increasing and improving source of supply. Illustrations in particular have multiplied in number and in excellence. Not only do books, magazines, and advertising media of many sorts abound in accurate and beautiful pictures, but there is perhaps no phase of modern book-making which exceeds in beauty, or in quality, or in teaching worth, the pictures that are found in all recent textbooks in geography. It is, however, a matter open to serious question if these pictures are used by teachers generally to a degree commensurate with their cost in money and in study, and with their possibilities for making the world of life and activities vivid to the masses of children to whom this complex world is presented.

Good pictures, probably more than any other phase of our subject matter in geography, put man and his activities in the place of importance to the child. They also offer detail often omitted in textual material for lack of space. These two considerations alone should give illustrations a place of large importance in the study. And since good pictures are a profitable and never-failing source of interest to children of all ages and conditions, it is surely worth the teacher's effort to see that this wealth of material does not go unused and unappreciated. It is also true, as many of us can attest from our own childhood's experience and from watching our own pupils at work, that the study of pictures needs guidance as well as any other phase of the child's search for knowledge, if intelligent interpretation is the expected result. Hence the term *picture study* should be taken quite literally—an effort to make the picture yield a value for effort expended upon it. The suggestions which follow are offered with the hope that picture study with geography may gain an added attractiveness.

Pictures with Textbook Lessons

A most obvious yet possibly one of the least employed methods of putting the pictures of the text to profitable use is to assign them for study by the pupils along with the related reading material which comprises the lesson unit. For example: All elementary school texts in the geography of Asia give considerable attention to the production of tea. Most of them contain one or more pictures showing some phase of the process—often the pickers gathering the leaves. Such a picture has its greatest value in that it shows a human activity—people like ourselves engaged in the every-day occupation of making a livelihood—and with a commodity with which each of us has a familiar acquaintance in its finished or ready-to-be-used form. From such a picture the pupils may learn:

1. Who the workers are—age, sex, dress, etc. From another picture perhaps on the same page, the home in which they live.
2. How the tea-plant grows—its size (compare with the pickers), the part used, the location of the field, etc.
3. Methods of picking, carrying, size of basket, etc.

These facts with others discoverable by the pupils must be decided upon by the teacher during his preparation for teaching the lesson, and must be included in some form of suitable assignment for study.

In some texts a caption, or some description or question serves to connect the picture with the accompanying textual material in such fashion as to enable the pupils to find out the points for themselves. If not, the problems should be set by the teacher. The class may use any reference at hand along with the text. Pupils may themselves make questions about the picture to be answered by the class. These questions will often carry the discussion into profitable related fields if not permitted to become irrelevant. Here are some examples of sixth grade children's questions during their study of tea:

1. Who works in the tea-fields?
2. What kind of machinery do the tea farmers use?
3. What wages do the pickers get?
4. What kind of climate does the tea-plant need?
5. How is tea prepared for us to use?
6. How is the tea shipped to us?
7. Who uses the tea besides ourselves?

Such a treatment of pictures with the lesson not only brings

their interest to the pupil in a very practical way, but it also teaches them a valuable method of study which will prove useful to them in other subjects as well. Even when this detailed work is impossible, a simple suggestion by the teacher is far better than the usual fashion of leaving pictures to accidental discovery by the pupils. It will at least help to lift the subject from the unemotional statement of abstract fact, to the higher plane of human values, thus increasing many fold its appeal to children. If geography in the elementary school should be a study of the relations of man to his environment, then the human element, which to the child is chiefly personal should be emphasized at every opportunity.

As shown by actual count, a very large proportion of the pictures in recent texts in geography contains this human or personal element. This is true even in books whose printed content consists too largely of generalizations which are not made intelligible to children by specific or objective illustration. To the pupil, "What are they doing?" "How do they do it?" are questions which, when answered, put the actors and himself on common ground of understanding. And when a study has been thus enriched the feeling of sympathetic relationship must have been enhanced to the lasting benefit of the learner.

PICTURES WITH REVIEWS

A second interesting plan for securing the value of pictures in the geography text may be carried out in connection with the review or summary of any topic which has been completed. The pictures relating to the subject may be assigned for study in any order the teacher deems most helpful—usually by topics, each child being responsible for one or more pictures. Each pupil uses his text thruout the exercise. If a member of the class is chosen to preside at the discussion time, the interest of all is heightened. The leader then calls each one to explain his picture in the light of his study of the facts it portrays. Each pupil in the audience turns to the picture referred to. When the explanation is finished the speaker answers to the best of his ability any questions that may come from the listeners, among whom is the teacher who acts also as guide. Our pupils like to call this "a lantern lesson from our books," and ask again and again to use it.

This device may be enriched according to the ability of the class and the additional material at hand. Definitely limited topics may

be assigned for study to groups of children each under a leader who will later take charge of the reporting of his group. These subjects may be industries, like farming or fishing; products, like coal or wheat; improvements, like homes or roads; customs, like dress or conventions; or whatever else is pertinent to the study at hand. Individuals, also, may add to the contributions of their own groups by special reports from other pictures, stories, or texts.

Many schools have access to large pictures, each of sufficient size to be seen by the entire class when seated for the purpose of studying them. These may belong to the library, or be part of the teacher's collection for the school, added to by pupils and teacher alike. Such pictures may often be grouped to show scenes in a city, along a coast or a river, in forest, field, or mine—always with the purpose of showing what people are doing or may do, under the conditions provided by the environment. Any teacher who will try inviting pupils to help make and use such a collection will be agreeably surprised at the results. This type of lesson works especially well with a large class which may be divided into groups. Each group may take one picture from the set relating to a given topic. Using this as a basis the pupils may consult all available references for material which will enrich or explain the subject. At the class assembly later, the facts thus gleaned may be reported, compared with contributions from other groups, and included in the organization of the larger unit to which they belong.

Pictures on Product Maps

Pictures may be used very successfully in making product maps in connection with the study of a state or a continent. One of the large outline maps, 36″ x 48″, is desirable for this work. After the study is well under way, the map may be posted, its purpose explained, and a plan decided upon for managing the project. In the first study of Europe, for example—a continent of numerous and highly varied peoples and activities—an exhibit of products is very helpful in interpreting the life of any region under study. Many of the products may be shown by sample, but others are too bulky or too difficult to secure to make their exhibit practical. Here pictures of the commodities offer an effective means of display and not only add variety but furnish explanation as well. Pictures for this purpose should be brought by the children and submitted to the class for approval, thus insuring accuracy in the facts pre-

sented. When the map is finished it presents to the pupils a gratifying reward of intelligent effort, and results not only in contribution to their knowledge but in a more sympathetic understanding of relations among nations.

JOURNEYS WITH PICTURES

Picture-journeys are lively exercises and prove valuable in securing clear images of differences in climate, surface, and in other features which determine the manner of living and the occupations of peoples. Taking as a problem a journey up the Mississippi, we pass fields of cane and cotton, thru regions producing corn, cattle, and wheat, to mines of coal and iron with the attendant factories, mills, boats, and depots. Another time we may travel up the Rhine from the lowland plains with their dikes and dairies, thru the vineyards and fields, past the cities and forests to the tumbling waters at its source. All this seen in pictures arranged if possible in the order of occurrence, lends vividness to the words of the book as nothing short of actual travel is likely to do. The "human interest" element in such an exercise provides an incentive which is often lacking in studies of far-away places.

When a collection of pictures relating to a given region or subject has been gathered, a lively study can be made if the teacher will arrange them in some suitable order, and clip to each a slip of paper containing an appropriate question or suggestion with a reference if needed to guide the pupil in interpretation. The final reports, of course, are to be open to discussion by the group. Similarly, pictures illustrating a topic may be mounted on sheets of paper accompanied by descriptions written by the pupils. These sheets bound into book form make a valuable means of review, and are a satisfying reminder of pleasure in work accomplished. Younger pupils especially are interested in this type of activity.

CHILDREN'S CONTRIBUTIONS

In connection with any new unit of study in geography a most helpful incentive to continued interest is found in any suggestion which will enlist the pupil's effort in making some personal contribution to its success. We have in our school a quite complete and constantly growing set of pictures contributed by both teachers and pupils illustrating regions and subjects in connection with our study of Asia. There is, for example, a set showing the animals

of that continent. This collection began while a class was solving the problem of how people in certain countries there use different animals in farming and other kinds of work. These pictures are divided into two groups showing those animals which are domesticated or otherwise useful to man, and those which are untamed. Those in the former group are shown in their native haunts if possible and again in man's service. This collection is not difficult to make and is perhaps more fruitful in its resultant knowledge than any other single study of the sort that we have made. Among other sets that we have made are some showing how silk is produced, and how rice is cultivated. All have proven potent aids not only in adding pleasure to the work, but in promoting a just and intelligent understanding of the life of people too often considered alien to ourselves.

A Testing Exercise

At an appropriate time pictures may serve as good material for a test. Each pupil may explain to his class and teacher, a picture not previously studied, as an indication of the work he has done with the topic suggested. With young children this exercise has all the attractiveness of a game in which each tries to prove his ability. With older ones the lesson may take the form of an identification test in which each pupil writes his interpretation of the picture given him.

Source Materials

As already indicated our pictures come from varied sources. Some are post-cards; many are from magazines; many more from the abundance of advertising material on every hand. Others are culled from the pictorial supplements of newspapers. Sometimes the camera of a traveled acquaintance yields an unusual treasure. Photographs might well be made a growing source of material for geography work. Nor should the many beautiful illustrations found in books of travel and description be overlooked. Books borrowed from the library and from the pupils' homes form a temporary collection of much value, especially for individual reference and report.

Another rich source of supply is found in textbooks which are outgrown, outworn, or replaced by others better suited to the pupils' needs. When such books have been discarded, it is surely not a waste, but rather an economy of resources, to use the pictures that

remain intact to enrich the study with a newer text. Of course children's judgments must be guided so that no injury is done in securing pictures, and so that unsuitable and inaccurate contributions will become rare—but in what of their endeavors is this not true?

Pictures for these studies are best handled if they are mounted without titles or captions. Should any teacher, however, desire to use the titles, they may be pasted on the back of the cardboard for use as the teacher directs. After being mounted the pictures may be assorted according to topics and placed in large envelopes, conveniently labeled.

One or two suggestions may prevent the novice in this work from discouragement. First, when one picture is called to the attention of an entire class the pupils must be so seated that the picture can easily be seen by each one. Failure to provide this situation has wrought havoc to the spirit of many a lesson. Second, picture-study should not be hurried. Let the pupils study a picture until it has yielded its message to their satisfaction. A few good pictures thus carefully scanned will not only give better immediate results, but will form a basis for further study far superior to a rapid glance at many.

There is no thought in this discussion of displacing or excluding pictures shown by lantern, stereoscope, or other means. These have an unchallenged place in the study of geography, and they often prove a stimulus to such exercises as are here mentioned; as, for example, when children offer pictures with the remark that "this shows the same thing we saw on the screen the other day." The effort here is only to give some hint of the profit and pleasure that may come thru the guided effort of the learner in a field as yet too little explored—and to suggest means of using resources which cost little beyond an intelligent effort and a persistent interest which bring increasing delight as results appear.

COLUMBUS MEETING OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF GEOGRAPHY TEACHERS

The next annual meeting of the National Council of Geography Teachers will be held at Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, December 27 and 28. The meetings will be held in the Museum of the Ohio Archaeological and Historical Society. This building houses a fine exhibit of the Stone Age as well as various historical exhibits of Ohio, especially those of the Mound Builders. Hotel headquarters will be at the Deshler-Wallick, which is only about twenty minutes ride from the meeting place. To reach the Museum take any car going north on High Street, directly in front of the hotel, marked High Street, Ohio State University, or O.S.U. The Museum is located at the intersection of High Street and Fifteenth Avenue. Hotel rates vary from $3.00 to $8.00 for single rooms and from $5.00 to $10.00 for double rooms. Make your reservations early. President Bengtson has formulated his preliminary program early so that we are able to present it to you in November. The meeting promises to be one of the most constructive which the National Council has ever held. Make your plans now and attend the meeting.

GEORGE J. MILLER, *Secretary*

PRELIMINARY PROGRAM OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF GEOGRAPHY TEACHERS

Friday and Saturday, December 27-28, 1929

Ohio State University

Columbus, Ohio

FRIDAY, 10:00 A.M.

1. Greetings—Dr. C. C. Huntington, Chairman, Department of Geography, Ohio State University.
2. Response—Dr. D. C. Ridgley, Clark University, Treasurer N.C.G.T.
3. Announcement of Committee Appointments.
4. Geographic Significance of Proposed Calendar Changes—Report of Special Committee.
   Professor G. E. Harding, State Teachers College, California, Pennsylvania, Chairman.
   Dr. J. E. Switzer, University of Indiana.
   Dr. H. Harrison Russell, State Teachers College, Bloomsburg, Pennsylvania.
5. The Method of Approach to the Planning of a School Curriculum in Geography—Miss Kathryn Schnorrenberg, Baltimore County Schools, Maryland.
6. Segregation of Students in Geography on the Basis of Their Qualifications—Dr. F. A. Carlson, Ohio State University, Columbus.

LUNCHEON

FRIDAY AFTERNOON, 2:00 P.M.

1. A Phase of the Industrial Geography of the Connecticut Valley Lowland—Dr. Albert LaFleur, Ball Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana.
2. The Status of Geography in the Liberal Arts Colleges of the United States—Professor Harry K. Hutter, Muskingum College, New Concord, Ohio.
3. The Introductory Course in Geography in the Liberal Arts College—Dr. Vernor C. Finch, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

Discussion:

President W. W. Atwood, Clark University
Dr. S. S. Visher, University of Indiana
Professor C. J. Posey, University of Kansas
Dr. Preston E. James, University of Michigan

GENERAL DISCUSSION

FRIDAY EVENING, 8:00 P.M.

1. A Visitorial Fellowship in Geography—Dr. J. Stanley Brown, Joliet, Illinois. (Formerly President of Northern Illinois State Teachers College, DeKalb, Illinois.)
2. The Mound Builders of Ohio—Dr. H. C. Shetrone, Director, the Ohio State Museum.
3. Meeting of Board of Directors.

SATURDAY FORENOON, 9:00 A.M.

1. Geography and the American Academy of Political and Social Science—Dr. H. F. James, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
2. A Statistical Study of Correlation of Geography and American History in the High Schools of the United States—Professor Earl E. Lackey, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska.
3. The Introductory Course in Economic Geography in the School of Business.—Dr. J. E. Orchard, Columbia University.

Discussion:

Professor F. E. Williams, University of Pennsylvania
Professor Richard Hartshorne, University of Minnesota
Professor W. R. McConnell, Miami University
Professor W. Elmer Ekblaw, Clark University

GENERAL DISCUSSION

LUNCHEON

SATURDAY AFTERNOON, 2:00 P.M.

1. The Biennial Convention of the World Federation of Education Associations, at Geneva, Switzerland—Miss Alison E. Aitchison, State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.
2. Problems in Training Geography Teachers—Dr. Clyde E. Cooper, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.
3. The Status of Geography in the State Teachers Colleges of the United States—Dr. Floyd Cunningham, State Teachers College, Florence, Alabama.
4. The Introductory Course in Geography in the Teachers College—Professor B. H. Schockel, State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana.

Discussion:

Professor DeForest Stull, Teachers College, Columbia University
Professor M. E. Branom, Harris Teachers College, St. Louis, Missouri
Dr. Robert G. Buzzard, Illinois Normal University, Nomal, Illinois

Professor Zoe Thralls, School of Education, University of Pittsburgh.
Professor Ernest E. Holmes, State Normal School, Lewiston, Idaho.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

SATURDAY EVENING, 6:30 P.M.

Dinner.

Reports of Council Activities in the Several States.

Address, The Possibilities of Pan-Europe—Dr. Samuel Van Valkenburg, College of the City of Detroit.

WHAT IS A SINGLE CYCLE COURSE IN GEOGRAPHY?

To the Editor:

I recently received this request: *"I wish you would give me a definition of A Single Cycle Course in Geography."* In reply I wrote the following paragraphs. This statement is not given as a *definition*, but it is an attempt to set forth some of the characteristics of a Single Cycle Course in Geography as they appear to me. You may publish the statement in the *Journal* if you believe it will be of interest to its readers.

A Single Cycle Course in Geography provides a treatment of the subject thru the first eight grades whereby the work of any year or grade does not duplicate the work of any previous year or grade with the same subject matter and method. Each year's work, as a unit, is different from the work of any previous year. In a single cycle course of geography, neither teachers nor pupils feel that they are going over or repeating the work of a previous year or grade. If the same region is under consideration in a later grade, the point of view and the method of approach are adapted to the increased abilities and the new interests of the pupils, so that the second consideration of the region or country is distinctly in advance of, not parallel to, the earlier treatment.

A single cycle course of geography, prepared for the present-day American school systems, provides an elementary treatment of the geography of the world that is well rounded out at the close of the sixth grade, with provision in the seventh and eighth grades for a study of geography that shall not repeat nor parallel the work or the method of the earlier grades. The general trend of present-day courses in the elementary school seems to indicate for grades 3, 4, 5, 6, a treatment of: (1) Home Geography; (2) World as a Whole; (3) Western Hemisphere; (4) Eastern Hemisphere. These units provide the basis for a single cycle course in these grades. The tendency for grades 7 and 8 is not so well marked. One outstanding feature in these upper-grade, or junior high school courses, is the definite tendency to give an adequate treatment to the United States in relation to the rest of the world. The methods by which this is accomplished are as varied as the number of courses offered by different school systems. The method of approach and the educational goal, however, are very different from the study of the United States in an earlier grade or year, thus extending the single cycle course thru the grammar school and junior high school.

The need for geography courses suitable for the upper grades and the junior high school is being met in a satisfactory way by individual school systems in many places. A study of the work thus far accomplished in this direction and the publication of results are desirable in order that school administrators and committees on courses of study thruout the country may have the assistance of the experiences thus far gained by others.

D. C. RIDGLEY, *Associate Editor*

EDITORIAL NOTES AND NEWS

What is the greatest highway construction project in the world? It is the Cuban Central Highway extending from Pinar del Rio to Santiago and will connect Havana with most of the important cities of Cuba. Its cost will be approximately $76,000,000 and it is now about 40 per cent completed. When this great highway, extending from one end of Cuba to the other, is completed, lateral roads will be constructed to many of the important port cities which now have practically no connection with the interior. This highway will open up a large area of fertile farming land. Since transportation is of such great importance to the modern world, it is believed that this great Central Highway will be of tremendous importance in the future development of Cuba. Cuba now depends very largely upon two crops—sugar and tobacco. This highway will make markets more accessible and will encourage diversification of agriculture and the development of other industries. It will also encourage the tourist industry as many Americans are now taking their cars to Cuba. Modern motor buses are now operating over the road that has been completed.

Airways and highways appear to be the two methods of transportation that are expanding rapidly. We hear constantly of new evidences of confidence in air transportation. It is reported that $20,000,000 of gold was sent recently from London to Paris in seven French and British airplanes in the course of one day. The total weight was 18,000 pounds, and one machine is said to have carried 5,000 pounds.

International trade statistics for many countries of the world are now available for the year 1928. These figures show a continuous growth in world trade since 1921 except for the single year 1926. This increase has continued even tho there has been a general decline in the prices of commodities. The following points of interest have been taken from the recent report.

1. Total value of world trade (102 countries): Exports, $32,994,000,000; imports, $35,041,000,000. (Note. Imports exceed exports because most countries add the cost of ocean transportation.)

2. The United States had 15.6 per cent of world's exports, and 11.7 per cent of the imports.

3. The per capita export trade of the United States was $42.1, import trade, $33.6. These figures are exceeded by nineteen of the thirty leading commercial countries.

4. New Zealand leads in per capita trade with $186.5 of exports and $148.9 of imports. Canada and Denmark rank next in order.

5. The United Kingdom has the largest world trade with $4,106,000,000 exports and $5,825,000,000 imports. The United States ranks second with $5,128,000,000 exports and $4,091,000,000 imports.

6. The United States provides a market for approximately one-third or more of the total exports from Cuba (73), Mexico (67), Brazil (45), British Malaya (42), Japan (42), Canada (37), Chile (32). Note: Figures are approximate percentages of total exports to all countries for last year for which data are available—1927 or 1928.

7. The United States supplies about one-fifth or more of the imports of Canada (69), Mexico (67), Cuba (61), Japan (29), Chile (30), Brazil (27), Australia (25), Argentina (25), Russia (21), Spain (20). Note: Figures are approximate percentages of total imports for last year for which data are available. All are for 1927 or 1928 except Argentina—1926.

8. The data here presented suggest some interesting questions for your students. (1) Why is the per capita trade of the United States so small compared with several other countries? Note: Difference in size of population is not the only answer and probably not the most important factor. (2) What are the chief products exported to us by each of the countries named? (3) What are the chief products imported from the United States by the countries named? (4) Will the total trade of the United States ever exceed that of the United Kingdom? (5) With what parts of the world is our trade growing most rapidly? (6) Is value a satisfactory measure of the importance of world trade? (7) Are values of a particular shipment the same in the exporting and in the importing country? (8) How could you compare world trade other than by value?

Significant changes in our industrial production and in our trade with Latin America are now taking place. Since 1914 industrial production has increased greatly in the East North Central, South, and Pacific states. While production in each of the other sections of the United States has increased greatly in total amount, it has declined relatively. Our commerce with Latin America has increased tremendously since 1900 until today our total Latin American trade is greater than the Latin American trade of Germany, France, and England combined. More than seven-tenths of our exports are finished manufactures, and about half of our imports from South America is coffee. In 1928 three-fifths of our exports and half of our imports passed thru the North Atlantic States, hence these states are still dominant in our Latin American trade. However, a great change is in progress. In recent years these states have declined materially in their share of the total tonnage of vessels that have cleared to Latin America. At the same time the tonnage of vessel clearances has increased relatively in the South Atlantic, Gulf, and Pacific coast districts. Los Angeles, Galveston, New Orleans, and Florida ports have made marked increases. Hence it appears that with the increase in manufacturing in the sections of the United States named, these sections are taking an increased share of our Latin American trade. What are some of the other factors that will influence this trend?

The question is often jokingly asked, "What is a tin can?" The automotive and tin plate industries in both Europe and the United States are making an enormous demand upon the world's tin supply. Where does the tin come from? The district comprising British Malaya and the Dutch East Indies supply about 57 per cent of the total world production. In 1928 British Malaya exported $109,000,000 worth of tin, $62,600,000 of which went directly to the United States. Singapore has the largest tin smelter in the world. Tin ore from the Dutch East Indies goes to the smelter at Singapore and hence is included in the exports from British Malaya. It accounts for a little more than a third of the Malayan exports.

The money sent home by Lithuanian immigrants in the United States in 1928 exceeded $2,600,000. In some years these remittances exceed the Lithuanian balance of trade. In 1928 they offset about 60 per cent of an unfavorable trade balance.

Before the war tourist expenditures in Italy offset about half of Italy's international trade deficit. Then many tourists rented a villa, or stayed at hotels, for several months at a time. Now Italy has lost a large part of this income because, in terms of gold, it is about 30 per cent cheaper for tourists to live in France than in Italy. Today fully nine-tenths of the tourists travel thru Italy in large parties by second or third class railway accommodations, stop at low priced pensions and hotels, and complete the tour in a week or two.

AN INTEREST-STIMULATING DEVICE

THE SCHOOL-MADE MOVIE

When one has an opaque projector, a movie proves an interesting project in geography. Almost any unit being studied may be used, and we have used the project with equal success in lower and upper grades. The subject is studied to obtain facts that will make an interesting movie.

Choose a title which will reveal some fact about the subject to be studied, yet be interesting. Print it on a piece of paper cut to fit the projector. To make it as nearly like a commercial movie as possible, the names of producers, printers, paper cutters, film makers, and operators may appear on the film. If the subject is large enough to be divided, each unit may be a reel.

The subject is now studied to find the facts which may be used as scenarios. As we develop the lessons, each child in my classes writes his own movie, numbering each scenario and writing in parentheses a description of the picture he wishes to find to illustrate it. These may be read to the class and let them choose the best ones from each paper; or it may be done by a committee chosen by the pupils, who will read and number consecutively the scenarios they wish to use.

The scenarios should be copied and given to the printers, who print them on small pieces of white paper, remembering to number and to keep them in order. Large printing will eliminate much changing of focus. Each child has been collecting or drawing pictures. Each is now given the number of the scenario which it will follow and the two are kept together. When all are finished, they are ready to be pasted on the film.

The film consists of long strips of cardboard, which fit the projector, pasted together with gummed tape. These may be cut from the cardboard backs of writing pads. When pasting, be sure to leave a space of about one-four inch between the cards to allow folding. Paste the scenarios and pictures to the film. Fold the cards back and forth and the movie is ready to show.

In our school, which has the platoon system, this is done in the auditorium where another class may see it. If there are any in the class who play some instrument, they may make up an orchestra which will add to the enjoyment of the program. If an orchestra is not available, or for variation try "Movie Tones." Choose several boys with strong voices, who give oral scenarios thru megaphones, instead of having them appear on the film. This requires more work and practice but the boys like it.

GRACE MARKWELL, *Elementary Geography, Brookfield, Illinois*

AN INTERNATIONAL FESTIVAL

The project was carried out by a college group of juniors and seniors who expect to become teachers but may be carried out in the junior high school. The idea was to visualize what had been taught in the class in human geography.

We had studied first the backward peoples in the world and then taken up the progressive peoples, our project had to do with the latter group. Each girl had reported completely on a given people covering the points—food, dress, shelter, recreation, religion, education, government, trade, contacts, and reaction to soil conditions. This was to show how environment determined these various points and created individual differences.

We combined the three classes in this subject, breaking them up into national units, each girl becoming a part of the unit on which she had reported. The groups had to dress as the people in that country, each one in the group representing a different type as

a peasant, aristocrat, etc. We used a large room and each unit was seated around a table eating food which people from that country would eat and the way in which they would eat it. Every group was responsible for a five minute entertainment of that country so typical that we could immediately guess the people they were representing.

Three girls, one from each class made up a general committee responsible for the organization and details of the project.

The program began at two o'clock, everyone was dressed and eating, they continued eating during the entertainment which was as follows.

Group I—MEXICO—Bull Fight

One girl was dressed as a bull, another as a toreador, a third one as an aristocratic lady and the fourth a flower peddler. Lunch: chilli, hot-tomale

Group II—ITALY—Curb Market

A peasant woman preparing her poultry (live) for sale, (2) a peasant man with vegetables for sale quarreling with his neighbor, (3) better class peasant marketing with her basket. Lunch: spaghetti, roll bread.

Group III—FRANCE—Street Cafe

(1) Waiter, (2) Artist, (3) his companion (4) dancing girl who entertains for the group. Lunch: wine, pastry.

Group IV—CHINA—Wedding

(1) Priest, (2) bride, (3) bridegroom, (4) servant. Lunch: fried noodles, rice, tea, candied figs.

Group V—IRELAND—Holiday

Two peasant men and women. Dancing jig. Lunch: Irish stew.

Group VI—ROUMANIA—Gypsy Camp

Men and women dancing and singing. Lunch: stew, coffee, and brown bread.

Group VII—SCOTLAND—Highland Fling

Men and women. Lunch: tea, cakes.

Group VIII—RUSSIA—Evening Story-telling

Peasant man, woman, and child. Lunch: brown bread and carrots.

Group IX—JAPAN—Garden Scene

Upper class men and women eating from stools, sitting on mats. Give a dance. Lunch: sprouts, rice, and tea.

MILDRED D. BABCOCK,
Winthrop College,
Rock Hill, South Carolina

Send your devices to the Editor. We will be pleased to publish more plans that have been found to be helpful.

GEOGRAPHICAL PUBLICATIONS

A. V. Dorris. **Visual Instruction in the Public Schools.** 480 pp. 154 illustrations. Ginn and Co., Boston. 1928.

This book is divided into three main sections: 1. A discussion of why visual aids are important in education and a brief evaluation of the visual aids available. 2. The use of visual aids in the teaching of the various subjects of the curriculum. 3. Teacher guidance in the use of visual aids, the organization and administration of a visual instruction department, and the outlook for visual instruction in the light of recent discoveries and projects in this field. Appended are two helpful lists: (1) Sources of supply for illustrative materials. (2) Special list of visual materials applied to the study of specific subjects.

Mrs. Dorris interprets the use of visual aids in terms of modern educational psychology and practice. Her statements regarding the importance and methodology of visual instruction are based on accepted theories of psychology and her own practical experience rather than scientific experimentation, altho such investigations undoubtedly have influenced her interpretation. Numerous examples are given where visual aids have been employed in learning situations with apparent success, but practically no specific mention is made of the results of scientific experimentation in this field.

The subject matter of the book is well organized, carefully illustrated, and is the result of extensive experience and careful thought. This book will be an extremely valuable book to those who are interested in organizing a visual instruction department in a school system and to those who are attempting to utilize visual aids in particular class-room situations.

Department of Visual Instruction ALFRED E. GILBERT
Schenectady, N.Y.

E. A. Ross. **World Drift.** 223 pp. Century Co., New York. 1928.

Professor Ross is one of the most widely travelled scholars, and his books contain much of interest to geographers because of his keen observation and effective portrayal. "World Drift" contains chapters of great value to geography teachers on the mountaineers of the southern Appalachians and on India. The chapters on his methods of conducting field research also will be appreciated by all who travel. The rest of the book will be read by almost everyone who reads these five chapters as Ross writes very interestingly and effectively.

Indiana University S. S. VISHER